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# NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

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- ART. I. — 1. *Constitucion de la Republica de Chile.* Santiago. 1845.  
2. *Instruccion para los Subdelegados e Inspectores.* Santiago. 1845.  
3. *Guia Jeneral de la Republica de Chile.* Valparaiso. 1847.

CHILE is in many respects the most interesting country in South America. It differs from all its sister republics in numerous and important particulars. The details of its polity, the character of its people, its natural productions, the physical as well as political geography of the country, and its social system, all present decided points of dissimilarity with those of the other Spanish American States. In the majority of instances, these distinctions are in favor of Chile. The government has proved itself the most stable and efficient of all; the people display a degree of enterprise unusual in South America; the country is devoid of venomous reptiles or poisonous insects; while in its social aspect, in the sedate and earnest character of the nation, there is more to remind one of the United States than is found elsewhere on the Southern continent. Comparatively little attention has been paid to the history or geography of this portion of the world, and perhaps even less is known of the details of its social and political system. In this article it will be our object to communicate briefly some information upon these particulars. The author-

ities upon which we rely are mainly the official documents above-named, together with personal observations made during a journey in that country.

In the antiquity of its traditionary history Chile yields the palm to Bolivia and Peru. The empire of the Incas was of far earlier date in those countries where it took its rise than in this, which was never but partially subject to it by conquest. From the archives of Cuzco we learn, that in the latter half of the fifteenth century, somewhat prior to the discovery of America, the Inca Ypanqui, the tenth in succession from Manco Caipac the reputed founder of the Empire, invaded Chile, and extended his dominions as far south as the river Rapel. There the determined opposition of the native tribes effectually resisted his further encroachment, and established this stream as the permanent boundary of the empire. The better portion of the country still remained in possession of the warlike aborigines. These retained undisputed supremacy till 1535, when the turbulent and ambitious spirit of Almagro, the earliest associate of Pizarro in the discovery of Peru, produced a feud between the conquerors, and led him to attempt, as a private enterprise, the invasion of Chile. With a handful of troops he accomplished the unexplored and perilous passage of the Andes, and undismayed by the terrors of the frightful desert of Atacama, which lay beyond, he pushed across it to be the first European who had ever trodden the soil of Chile. Again the valor of the Indians defended their territory successfully against the Spaniard, as it had done before against the Inca. After nearly two years of incessant and sanguinary conflict, Almagro was forced to abandon his purpose and return to Peru. He soon after perished on the scaffold, for heading a revolt against the authority of Pizarro. His associates, who, from their celebrated expedition, had acquired the name of "the men of Chile," afterwards avenged his death by the assassination of Pizarro in 1541. Shortly before this event, the conqueror of Peru had taken measures to annex Chile to the already extensive possessions of the Spanish crown in America. Don Pedro de Valdivia, a man illustrious as a statesman and a general, was sent, in 1540, at the head of 150 Spanish troops and a corps of Peruvian auxiliaries, to effect the conquest of Chile. Fighting his way through the heretofore unconquered tribes

who opposed his progress, in February, 1541, he encamped by the river Mapocho, flowing through a vast plain dotted with the huts of 20,000 Indians, and there founded the city of Santiago, the present capital of the republic. From this point he commenced a war which, for its duration, the gallantry of its exploits, and the desperate courage with which it was maintained, has never been surpassed in history. The conquest of the Araucanian Indians was an object which employed the troops and exhausted the means of the Spanish viceroys for 180 years. Through the whole of that long period, with but a single intermission, the conflict presented one continued series of achievements equal to any that made the conquest of Granada immortal in the annals of chivalry, and unrivalled by those which, in recent years, have made the war in Circassia conspicuous in the records of struggling freedom. Valdivia was more fortunate than any of the generals who succeeded him. At the end of twelve years, he had penetrated to the south of Chile, and founded several cities in the enemy's country; among them, the one now called by his name. But the prowess of Lautaro, a young Araucanian warrior, who terminated on the field of battle, at the age of nineteen, a brief but brilliant career, checked the progress of the Spaniards by the defeat and death of their leader. The war continued with varied success, although generally adverse to the Spaniards, till the year 1602, when the Araucanians possessed themselves of all the cities founded by Valdivia, completely reconquered their country, and restored its ancient boundary on the north, — the river Biobio. After more than a century of further conflict, with but one short interval of peace, this stream, the largest in Chile, was finally admitted by a treaty between the contending parties, in 1722, as the limit of the Spanish dominions in America. So ended the most protracted and sanguinary contest ever waged on the western continent, — a contest which has immortalized the name of Araucana and transmitted the same spirit of wild freedom, through the lapse of a century and a quarter, to the untamed tribes still inhabiting the impregnable fastnesses of the southern Cordilleras of Chile. The Araucanians of the present day retain unimpaired the heroic qualities of their ancestors. They are brave and warlike, attached to their country, and jealous of freedom to a degree that makes them reckless of life in its

defence. They are described as generous, prudent, and faithful in their dealings, but superstitious, and addicted to all the vices incident to a savage state. They believe in the immortality of the soul, and recognize the existence of a Supreme Being, and likewise of several inferior divinities ; but have no external forms of worship. They have no common government, but are divided into a great number of independent caciquedoms. As a whole, they are probably the finest race of Indians on the continent.

The treaty of 1722 with the Araucanians secured to the Spanish dominions in America a period of profound peace for nearly ninety years. This tranquillity was broken in 1810 by the first murmurs of revolt, which were soon to extend over the entire continent, and after fourteen years of ruthless and bloody war, to end in the independence of Spanish America. The French invasion of the Spanish peninsula, and the consequent captivity of the royal family, gave the signal of revolution. Its first development was in the form of rebellion against the French government in Spain. The sentiment of loyalty, for which the Spanish race have been illustrious above all other European nations, confined the movement in the first instance to this object. In La Plata, opposition to Napoleon was more exclusively the motive of rebellion than in Chile, — so much so, that it was not till after the restored monarch, imprudently failing to reward the loyal spirit of the colonies by granting them some immunities, which under the circumstances should have been accorded, had shown a disposition to strengthen rather than relax the rigor of his government, that, in 1816, La Plata declared her independence of Spain. In Chile, the ultimate purpose was more speedily conceived and more promptly avowed. In July, 1810, the President Carrasco was deposed and another put in his place. Scarcely two months elapsed before this administration was supplanted by a provisional junta, assuming to govern in the name of the captive king, but which soon, transcending its ostensible object, proceeded to sever all connection with the mother country. The new government was unanimously recognized, and continued for several months in the quiet prosecution of its plans. In April, 1811, the first blood was spilt in the cause of Chilean independence. On the day appointed for the election of deputies to the first national

congress, a battalion of royalist troops attempted to overawe the electors and reëstablish the Spanish government. They were attacked in the great square of Santiago by a detachment of Patriot grenadiers, and routed with considerable loss on both sides. The first congress met in the following June.

It was not till the beginning of 1813 that any formidable attempt to subjugate the country was made by Spain. At that time, General Pareja, at the head of a powerful army sent by the viceroy of Peru, invaded Chile, and was defeated in two engagements by Carrera. During this period, the internal affairs of the country were much distracted, and frequent changes took place in the course of the war, both in the civil administration and the military organization. In one of these, the two brothers Carrera, who had been foremost in urging on the revolution, experienced the popular resentment, and in consequence of a temporary reverse in battle, were obliged to flee across the Andes. For some cause inexplicable to us, they were never permitted to return to Chile, nor were they received in La Plata with that generosity to which their misfortunes and their gallant devotion to the cause of freedom entitled them. They were young men of the best blood in Chile, remarkable for their personal attractions, their wealth, indomitable courage, and daring exploits. At the outbreak of the revolution, they put themselves at the head of the movement, were joyfully received as leaders, and freely expended their treasure in the common cause. Victory followed in their path, they were hailed as the saviors of their country, and seemed to stand on the pinnacle of fame. But the breath of popular favor was withdrawn in the full tide of their career. A slight reverse was the ostensible occasion of their flight; but this alone could not efface, even in the minds of a fickle populace, the remembrance of their successes, or countervail the influence of their admirable personal qualities. Perhaps Cæsar's fault was theirs. If so, they paid Cæsar's penalty for ambition. After being in exile five years, they were executed in the plaza of Mendoza, in 1818, only a day or two before the news reached that place of the brilliant battle of Maipu, which terminated a war that they had commenced, and secured the independence of their country, which had been the aspiration of their lives.

The reverses sustained by the army of Pareja were more than counterbalanced by the arrival of General Gainza with large reinforcements from Lima. An ineffectual attempt at a treaty of peace was followed by the utter defeat of the Chilenos in several obstinate battles, until the decisive action of Rancagua, in 1814, obliged them to seek refuge beyond the Andes, and left the country for nearly three years in undisturbed possession of the royalists. Meanwhile, the discontent in La Plata had ripened to open rebellion, and the fugitive Chilenos lent their aid in conducting the war to a speedy and prosperous termination. Their efficient coöperation was repaid with interest, when, in February, 1817, "the army of the Andes," composed of the remains of the Chileno forces and a strong body of Buenos Ayrean troops, commanded by San Martin, passed the Cordillera and routed the royal forces in a desperate battle on the heights of Chacabuco. This action was the Saratoga of Chile, resulting in the capture of nearly the entire army of the enemy. The only strong point which yet remained true to the Spanish cause was Talcahuana. Here Ordoñez intrenched himself undisturbed for many months, until General O'Higgins, who, after the victory of Chacabuco, had been made Supreme Director of the state, marched to besiege that port. The arrival of Osorio, at the head of 6000 Spanish veterans, compelled O'Higgins to raise the siege, and, uniting his forces with those of San Martin, to proceed against Osorio, who was marching upon the capital. The Patriot army, consisting of 7000 infantry, 1500 cavalry, and thirty pieces of artillery, were surprised in the night of the 19th of March, 1818, within a few leagues of Santiago, and completely routed. For a few days, the liberty of Chile seemed lost beyond hope. But the allies rallied their scattered forces, and speedily united in the capital. On the 5th of April was fought the final and most brilliant action of the war, on the plains of Maipu. The Spanish army, composed of 9000 men, a large portion of whom were the tried heroes of the peninsular campaigns, and flushed with the easy victory of Cancharayada a few days before, were confident of success. The patriots numbered 5000 men, and were commanded by San Martin. All Santiago came out to witness a battle which was to decide the fate of Chile. It is said that the appearance of

this vast concourse of people in the rear of the allied army gave Osorio the impression that it was a strong detachment of the enemy in reserve, and thus contributed somewhat to the result of the day. The battle lasted four hours, and was obstinate and bloody in the extreme. Two thousand men were buried in the field, and 2500 prisoners, including a large portion of the royalist officers, with all the artillery and munitions of war, fell into the hands of the patriots. Osorio, with but a tattered remnant of his once formidable army, made good his escape to Talcahuana. This port was soon after evacuated, and the independence of Chile secured.

The attention of the allied armies of Chile and La Plata was now directed to obtaining the liberty of Peru, which, for the next six years, was destined to be the seat of war. The first step to be taken in order to achieve this result was to obtain the supremacy of the sea. To this object the energies of the new Republic were successfully directed; and in 1820, the famous liberating expedition sailed under the direction of San Martin.

In 1823, a popular tumult compelled O'Higgins to resign the directorship, which he had held for six years, and a provisional triumvirate succeeded for a few weeks, until the election of General Freire as Director. At the end of three years, the dissensions, which had then assumed the form of civil war, obliged him to vacate the government, and for the succeeding four years Chile was torn by continual convulsions. From 1826 to 1831, no less than six different Directors, besides a second provisional triumvirate, successively stood at the head of the government. In 1828, the first constitution of Chile was promulgated under the administration of General Pinto. The next year is especially noted in the annals of Chile for the accumulation of its disasters. During this period of misfortune, society was in a transition state. The crude and ill-digested notions of government, which protracted war had engendered during the revolution, were becoming moulded, through the stern experience of anarchy and domestic strife, into those stable and well-defined principles of regulated liberty which were to form the basis of future government, and ultimately to render Chile the most prosperous and best organized republic in South America. In 1831, General Prieto assumed the reins of government.



A convention was called to revise the constitution of 1828, and the result of their deliberations was the present constitution of Chile, which was proclaimed on the 25th of May, 1833. Under this constitution, the affairs of Chile have advanced with order and regularity, undisturbed by the commotions which have distracted the sister republics. We shall allude to its prominent features when we come to consider the present political condition of the country.

In its geographical aspect, Chile is not less marked and peculiar than in its historical and political character. It is the most limited in longitude, and, with the single exception of Brazil, the most extended in latitude, of any country in the world. Reaching from the desert of Atacama to Cape Horn, it embraces more than thirty degrees of latitude, while the greatest width of its mainland is but 200 miles, and its average width about 160. But nearly one half of this great extension is embraced by the islands which skirt the western coast of Patagonia, and form collectively the southern province of the republic. It is separated by an almost impassable desert from Bolivia on the north, and by the Andes from the provinces of La Plata on the west. This great natural boundary, by approaching to the borders of the ocean at the forty-fourth degree of latitude, cuts off Chile, by the terms of her constitution, from any claim to the mainland of Patagonia beyond the summit of the mountains, and leaves the sterile region in possession of the Argentine confederacy. Recently, however, the government have claimed the whole peninsula of Patagonia in the name of the nation, and established a colony at the Straits of Magellan. This act elicited a serious remonstrance from the government of Buenos Ayres, and annually forms an item in the message of Rosas. It remains an open question between the countries, and may ultimately lead to a war. The superficial area of the republic is computed at 190,000 square miles. A large portion of this is occupied by the stupendous Cordillera and the parallel ranges and spurs which extend in some points quite to the Pacific shore. The entire breadth of the main chain is about 120 miles, but a small portion of which is within the limits of Chile. The dividing line between Chile and La Plata is the ridge of the Andes; and as the western declivity is extremely precipitous, while the eastern is quite gradual, including many leagues

of table land, less than one third of the territory included in the great Cordillera is within the jurisdiction of Chile. In a general view, the long narrow strip of land between the ocean and the Andes may be considered as an inclined plane, rapidly descending, within the space of about 100 miles, from an altitude of sixteen or twenty thousand feet, to the level of the sea. In detail, it will be found that there are three ranges of mountains parallel with the main chain, which ranges are the steps ascending from the ocean to plains, each more elevated as we proceed inland, so that Chile is in fact a succession of gigantic terraces, which by their wonderful luxuriance form, as it were, the hanging gardens of the world. These plains are, in many parts, traversed by spurs from the great range, and interspersed with isolated hills and low mountains. They present, by the richness of their verdure, in contrast with the snow-clad Andes beyond, a combination of beauty and sublimity in natural scenery unrivalled by any country on the globe. Even in the bosom of the Cordillera, amidst some of the loftiest mountains on earth, clad in eternal snow, abounding in frightful chasms and precipices of unmeasured height, we sometimes meet with broad and beautiful valleys, enlivened by unfailing waterfalls, and seeming, in their seclusion and their loveliness, to realize the romantic home of Rasselas.

There are no less than sixteen active volcanoes among the Andes of Chile, which, according to popular belief, occasion the frequent earthquakes experienced in that region. Perhaps a more philosophic view of the subject would attribute both phenomena to the same cause, and consider the volcano as the natural safety-valve for the escape of internal fires and explosive gases, which, without this outlet, might produce more frequent and disastrous earthquakes than now occur. The country abounds in streams and rapid torrents, presenting picturesque cascades, and everywhere fertilizing the soil. There are forty rivers emptying into the Pacific, many of them navigable for half their length. The waters of these streams are conducted, by means of canals, to the plantations on the plains, presenting perhaps a more perfect system of irrigation than can be found out of Egypt. There are many lakes, in some of which, near the sea-coast, the water is brackish. Thermal springs abound, especially in the Cordillera, and medicinal waters are found in many parts of the country. It

is no unusual thing among the mountains to find a warm rivulet at a temperature of nearly 90° Fahrenheit, flowing within a few feet of another stream whose chilling waters are supplied from the everlasting snow on the summits.

The climate of Chile is unsurpassed for its healthful and agreeable character. The English who visit Italy, unused in their foggy island to see an entire clear day, and not often enjoying the sight of more than a square rod or so of blue sky at a time, become enamored of that really delicious climate, and would fain persuade the world that no air is so pure, no sky so bright, as that which pertains to "charming Italy." The conclusion is right enough as respects *their* world, and we should not here allude to it, did not so many Americans join in the cry, as if they, too, had never before seen fair weather, and could discover in the Italian firmament "an intenser blue," or imagine they could "see farther into it," than in any other sky. Those of our countrymen whose eyes are then for the first time opened to discern the beautiful in nature, should not afterwards be unmindful of the cloudlike glories of a summer sunset in New England, or of the more Italian splendor of a winter moonlight at the south. Both of these classes of persons might be moved to a higher admiration at the wonders of the heavens, and a more just appreciation of the excellencies of climate, could they enjoy a season in Chile. The remarkable purity of the atmosphere, together with the fact that the southern constellations are more numerous and comprise a much larger number of stars of the first magnitude than those of the north, impart to the nights in that country a brilliancy unknown on this side the Equator. Meteoric fires are often seen, and aerolites are not uncommon; but the aurora australis is less frequently visible in Chile than in corresponding latitudes on the Atlantic.

There are essential differences in climate between the two extremities of the republic, but not so great as distinguish the various sections of the northern temperate zone. The heat of summer in the northern provinces, which are almost within the tropic, is tempered by copious dews at night and the sea-breeze by day. Only for a few weeks in midwinter, is the cold uncomfortable at night in the southern provinces, (we speak of course, only of the mainland,) while the day is at all times mild. The four seasons are distinctly marked, but

less strongly contrasted than in similar latitudes in the northern hemisphere. The principal distinction in the climate of different parts of the country is in the amount of rain which falls during the winter, from June to September. In the northern provinces, half a dozen rains in the season suffice to replenish the streams and fertilize the earth. In the central districts, rain falls from two to four consecutive days, with intervals of one or two weeks of delightful weather, through the season. At the south, the rains are much more frequent, continuing without cessation from one to three weeks, rarely accompanied by wind or thunder; and heavy falls of snow sometimes occur. In no part of the world, over so great an extent of latitude, can there be found so equable and agreeable a temperature. Heat without its debilitating influence, cold without the severity of a northern winter, and the natural transition from one to the other without the dampness of our spring or the chilliness of our autumn, complete the circuit of the Chile year.

The productions of Chile in all three of the natural kingdoms are abundant and valuable in the highest degree. The mildness of the climate, the completeness of the irrigation, the quantity of salts and other manures which are found in every part of the country, and even the warmth which the existence of internal fire here imparts to the earth, all conduce to the wonderful fertility of the soil. The products of both hemispheres appear to flourish with equal luxuriance. Wheat in the interior often yields one hundred for one, and nearer the sea-coast, where the soil is less fertile, sixty or seventy for one is a common harvest. Maize and other grains are produced in a like degree of fecundity. The finest hemp in America, equal to the best of European growth, is extensively cultivated. Flax is indigenous to the southern provinces. The red pepper, beans, potatoes, and almost every kind of vegetables, and delicious fruit, grapes, peaches, and pineapples, are abundant. The largest and many of the finest varieties of strawberries known are raised in such quantities, that all over South America the common name of this exquisite fruit is "*la fruta de Chile*." Silk is produced in perfection, but the art is yet in its infancy. Tobacco of good quality is raised, but being a government monopoly is not much cultivated. Cotton and sugar-cane are indigenous to the northern pro-

vinces, but as they do not yield so well as many other articles, their cultivation has been abandoned. Many plants known in the *materia medica*, and drugs used in the arts, are of spontaneous growth, such as aloes, quina, and madder. The forests of Chile, chiefly in the south, are magnificent. About one hundred different kinds of trees, among which are some of the most elegant varieties of evergreen, the Chile pine, cypress, laurel, cedar, bay, many sorts of oak, and hard woods valuable in ship-building and domestic architecture, compose these forests, while the undergrowth of shrubbery is not less remarkable for the richness of its foliage and the lusciousness of its fruits.

The animal kingdom is singularly rich in all that adds to the comfort and convenience of man, and wonderfully exempt from all that contributes to his annoyance. If St. Patrick expelled the snakes and toads from Ireland, some more potent or beneficent demigod of the Papal calendar has presided over the fortunes of Chile. It is a fact as remarkable in natural history as it is fortunate for the inhabitants of this favored country, that they enjoy almost complete exemption not only from all manner of poisonous reptiles and venomous insects, but also from those pests of domestic life which in other warm regions so effectually destroy one's peace. It is also said, that there are no beasts of prey within the limits of Chile, although on the La Plata side of the Andes, lions and pumas are found among the ravines and table lands of that desolate region. Of the domestic animals, the horse is found in greater perfection in this country than anywhere in the new world. Descended from the celebrated breed of Andalusia, they rival in spirit, beauty, and fleetness, their illustrious progenitors; and in fact, this stock is now more pure and undeteriorated here than in the parent country. The cattle are larger and stronger than those of Spain, and their flesh, fat, and hides, together with the rich cheese made from their milk, form a large article of commerce. The wool of the native breed of sheep is in high esteem for its length and fineness. Of wild animals, the guanaco is a native of the mountainous portions of Chile, and is the same as that of which a domestic variety is known as the llama, and has been termed the camel of Peru, equally from its being used as a beast of burden in that country, and from its resemblance to a

young camel. The vicuña is another denizen of the loftiest region of the Andes, and is one of the most beautiful animals in existence. It resembles some varieties of the deer, and its eye surpasses that of the gazelle in liquid lustre. The most delicate woollen fabrics known in art are manufactured by the Indians from the hair or wool of the vicuña. These are the principal animals found in Chile; but there are some others, which are valuable for their fur; among them, the chinchilla is the best known in commerce, and is found in many parts of the Andes. Birds of numerous sorts frequent the woods, and the largest species known in the world, the condor, builds its nest on the cliffs of the Andes. The waters of Chile, both fresh and salt, are noted throughout South America for the variety and excellence of their shell and scale fish.

It would seem as if nature had done enough on the surface of Chile to render its people prosperous and happy. But even the bowels of the earth yield a rich return to those who seek there the means of subsistence. The mineral wealth of the country is unbounded, exceeding even the prodigious fertility of its soil. Gold, which has been pronounced by scientific men to be of great purity, is found in the mountains and also in the beds of many rivers and among the dust and debris of the hills. Silver ore of remarkable purity is obtained in still larger quantities. But it is in copper that this country most abounds, and so abundant is it that Chile might be called the copper mine of the world. In the vicinity of the principal mines in the provinces of Copiapo and Coquimbo, the print of one's fingers in the soil will often appear as if coated with this metal. There are several varieties of the ore, one of which contains nearly thirty per cent. of gold, so that the mining business is chiefly confined to these two metals. Tin and lead are also worked in sufficient quantities for the supply of the country. But as yet the subterranean treasures of Chile are but partially developed. Careful examinations by competent observers have proved beyond a doubt that rich stores of baser but more useful minerals, of important articles of commerce, and even of gems, still remain imbedded in the soil. Iron, coal, cinnabar, loadstone, porphyry, agate, sapphire, jet, jasper, the finest marbles, and slate, have all been discovered in dif-

ferent parts, though mostly among the Andes, and in the northern provinces of the republic.

Thus is it that the choicest productions of the three kingdoms of nature have been lavished upon this favored spot of earth. Here, then, we might expect that Man, the master and arbiter of all, would exhibit a degree of physical development and of social progress proportioned to the extent of his advantages ; nor shall we in all respects be disappointed.

The population of Chile is composed of native Indians and of Creoles, or descendants of Europeans, which latter, including the Mestizos, or those of mixed Indian and white or negro blood, number probably at this time nearly a million and a half. They occupy the greater portion of the country, and it is to them only that we shall refer hereafter in speaking of the social and political condition of Chile.

The Indians consist of the Araucanians, whom we have before described, dwelling south of the river Biobio, and of several independent tribes inhabiting the Andes, who are nomadic and more barbarous than the Araucanians. The entire Indian population is less than 20,000. They are externally a fine race of men, and speak a common language remarkable for its richness and harmony.

A large portion of the Creole blood in Chile is derived from the northern provinces in Spain bordering on the Bay of Biscay, and the people retain many of the traits of their progenitors. They are quite tall and robust, and display a strong feeling of nationality and love of freedom, united to a degree of energy and enterprise nowhere equalled in South America. The results which might be expected from such an ancestry are developed in Chile. In every point of view, it is the most advanced of the South American States. It is the only one of them which has not been the theatre of repeated revolutions since the establishment of its independence. For twenty years, Chile has enjoyed uninterrupted domestic tranquillity, and has been rapidly advancing in prosperity and power. Its political institutions have acquired a solidity not easily shaken by the schemes of demagogues or shattered by the ambition of military aspirants. To their innate love of freedom the people unite a respect for organic law, which is the surest guaranty for the enjoyment of regulated liberty and the strongest safeguard against the

approaches of anarchy. Their intense nationality of feeling preserves them from many of the perils which environ the sister republics. With less regard for the opinion of their neighbors than for their own prosperity, they have interfered in the affairs of other states only when such interference was necessary to secure tranquillity at home, or to strengthen their position as a nation. Their collective energy and enterprise is shown not only in the completeness and extent of their political organization, but likewise in those schemes of territorial aggrandizement, which look forward to the time when a rapidly increasing population shall require further room for its expansion, and when, to the command of the South Pacific, already secured to them by nature, may be added the commerce of the Atlantic, without the dangerous passage of Cape Horn, through the commodious harbors of eastern Patagonia.

The general government of Chile is a popular, representative republic, like that of the United States. The first article of the constitution, defining her territory, especially includes the two islands of Juan Fernandez and Masafuera. This, together with the fact that one of these islands has been used as a penal colony in times past, and both have always been under the jurisdiction of Chile, sufficiently establishes her claim, and debars any other power from the right of possession. We mention this because, during the recent emigration to California, the advantages which these islands present as a stopping place for our ships suggested the idea to some uninformed letter-writers that our government should take possession of them. It only requires that the truth of the matter should be known in this country to relieve the anxiety which this suggestion naturally awakened in the mind of the people of Chile.

The President is the chief magistrate of the nation. He is chosen in the same manner, and must possess nearly the same qualifications, as with us. The duration of his office is five years, with the possibility of a second term, after which a period of at least five years must elapse before he is again eligible. The provisions, in case of the death or incompetency of the President from any cause, are very similar to those in our own constitution, except that, there being no distinct office of Vice-President, the cabinet minister next in



order assumes that title with the powers of President. These powers are in most respects like those of a President of the United States, but in some important particulars are more ample. He may prolong the ordinary sessions of Congress for fifty days, and, with the assent of the Council of State, may call extra sessions. He can appoint and remove at will, not only cabinet ministers, clerks of departments, and councillors of state, but also diplomatic ministers, consuls, and the higher provincial officers. In the appointment of the superior grades of the judiciary, however, he possesses only concurrent powers with the Council of State, from whom these nominations must proceed, as is also the case with the ecclesiastical dignitaries, who must, in addition, be approved by the senate. The higher naval and military commissions must likewise be approved by the Senate, except where the President takes the field in person, in which case the appointing power is vested solely in him. He can distribute the army and naval force at his discretion, and with the consent of the Senate, may command them in person. He is not allowed, except by special permission of Congress, to leave the country during the term of his administration, nor for one year after its expiration, within which period alone is he liable to impeachment for perversion of power. The same rule holds for a more limited time with the other high officers of government. These are, with one exception, the most prominent points of difference between the executive functions of the two republics. This exception is found in the existence of the Council of State, which may be considered a coördinate branch of the executive department. The Council is composed of the cabinet ministers and superior justices, with one dignitary of the church, one naval or military general, one head of any bureau in the treasury department, two ex-ministers, cabinet or diplomatic, and two persons who have held some of the higher provincial offices. Its powers are chiefly advisory as respects the President, serving likewise as a restraint on his movements in the few cases above named, and in some others of minor importance. It also decides questions which may arise between the several administrative departments of government, or between these and the judicial tribunals. It decides whether cause exists for criminal prosecution against provincial officers, except where such suits are brought by the

chamber of deputies, and it settles disputes that may arise on government contracts. It moves the displacement of all officers of government for delinquency or negligence of duty. Finally, to this body the President is obliged to submit for their deliberation all laws contemplated or enacted by Congress, and also the annual fiscal estimates. The members are responsible to Congress for the advice they may give, and if it be adverse to the laws, are liable to impeachment by the chamber of deputies.

The administrative department of the government is conducted by four cabinet ministers, one of interior and foreign affairs, one of justice, worship, and public education, one of war and marine, and one of finance. Any order given by the President referring to matters within the control of either of these departments must be confirmed by the appropriate minister before it can be obeyed. The cabinet are responsible to Congress individually, not merely for such confirmation, but also for whatever is done by them in common. A minister may be also a senator or deputy; but without being either, he is entitled to be present at the sessions and take part in the debates of Congress, but has no vote in that body. In this respect, the law resembles that of the British Parliament, and contrasts favorably with the custom in this country. He may be impeached by the Chamber of Deputies for treason and malfeasance in office, and is liable to an action from any private individual who may suffer unjustly by any of his acts; in this case, the complaint must be made to the senate, who will decide whether it be admissible; and if so declared, the claimant may arraign the minister at the proper tribunal. In other respects, the powers and duties of cabinet ministers in Chile do not differ essentially from those of corresponding officers in the United States.

The legislature consists of two chambers, the Senate and Deputies. The former is composed of twenty members, whose term of office is nine years. It is renewed, as with us, by thirds, seven senators being chosen in each of the first two periods of three years, and six in the last. The mode of their election is peculiar. Each province chooses a number of electors equal to three times its representation in the Chamber of Deputies. On a certain day, these electors assemble in the capitals of their respective provinces, and each one

votes for as many persons as there are senators to be chosen at that period. Two records of the result, signed and sealed by the electors, are sent, one to be deposited in the archives of the Province, the other to the Conservative Commission (which will be presently explained) at Santiago. The commission pass the records over to the Senate, who verify the result and inform the senators elect, or in case no absolute majority appears, proceed to make an election from among the candidates having the highest number of votes. The exclusive powers of the Senate are confined to judging officers who may be accused by the Chamber of Deputies, confirming the ecclesiastical nominations, and giving or withholding its consent to the acts of the executive in certain cases. Laws relating to amnesty and to constitutional reforms must originate in this body.

The Chamber of Deputies corresponds to our House of Representatives, and is elected by the people on a basis of one deputy to every 20,000 inhabitants. It is entirely renewed every three years, but without limit as to the number of terms one may serve. The exclusive functions of the Deputies consist in accusing before the Senate the high officers of government for various public offences, and in originating all money bills, or propositions for recruiting the military force. All other proceedings of government depend upon the concurrent action of the two Houses. The pardoning power in reference to high officers of state pertains exclusively to Congress. All laws, with the exceptions just made, may originate in either body; but if rejected by either, or vetoed by the President, cannot again be brought up till the next year. The sessions of Congress are limited to the three winter months, and may, at the will of the President, be prolonged fifty days. Extra sessions are not subject to constitutional limitation. The day before the regular sessions close, the Senate elect seven of their number, who constitute the Conservative Commission. They continue until the next regular session. Their duties are to see that the laws are obeyed, to guard the conduct of the President, and to exercise concurrent powers with him in specified cases.

The judicial department of Chile is extremely elaborate. No less than twenty-two species of tribunals compose the system, including all grades of the civil government, from the

district magistrates to the national Congress. They may be divided into three general classes, of which two are properly judicial in their functions, and the third in the main political. This latter includes five tribunals, of which the Congress collectively and in its separate branches form three, with parliamentary jurisdiction, and the Council of State one, with administrative powers. The judicial functions of these bodies have already been noticed. The fifth is called the mixed tribunal, and was formed under the treaty with Great Britain in 1839, guaranteeing the mutual right of search in vessels suspected of slave traffic. It consists of a judge, an arbiter named by each party to the treaty, and a notary. There is no appeal from its decisions as to the validity of a capture. The other two classes whose functions are judicial, embrace seventeen distinct species of tribunals. Of these the superior class may be divided into two orders. The first embraces the Supreme Court, which has direct supervision of all the others, and the three courts of Appeal, all of which are composed of a certain number of legal ministers or justices, with a corps of special ministers to aid in certain cases. These special justices form a remarkable feature in the Chile system. They are taken from the educated and intelligent classes connected with the military, the agricultural, mining, and commercial interests of the country. When a case is on trial before any of these courts involving matters pertaining to either of these interests, the special judges for that interest sit on the bench, and have an equal voice with the legal judges both as to the law and the fact. The special ministers have regular salaries as judges, but are military or business men, and not lawyers. These courts sit only in the capital of the Republic, whither cases are brought from all parts of the country for their adjudication.

The lower grade of the superior class of courts includes four kinds of tribunals, presided over by what are termed learned judges, or those who, having been advocates, are learned in the law, in contradistinction to the inferior magistrates, of whom we shall presently speak. One of these tribunals decides in suits involving more than \$150, or where certain government officers are parties, and also in criminal cases. Another has cognizance, in connection with the Provincial Intendente, of fiscal causes, in which their decision is final in cases of less than \$200. Another, composed of one

learned judge, the collector of customs, and a commercial judge, decide without appeal in revenue cases involving confiscation. The fourth has jurisdiction in libel suits, and is required to have two hearings in each case, the first before four judges of the fact, who decide whether there be just cause for prosecution, and the second before seven judges, who decide whether or not the plaintiff has sustained injury. At this second hearing, the legal judge presides, and in case of injury decrees the penalty. The superior justices and learned judges hold office during good conduct.

The inferior tribunals are of eleven kinds. Some of them have as important spheres of jurisdiction as the lower grade of superior courts above enumerated; and the classification here adopted is for the sake of making this whole complicated system more intelligible and less tedious to the American reader than it would be, if all the twenty-two different sorts of tribunals were noticed in the order of rank which they occupy in Chile. In the two great classes into which the seventeen varieties of strictly judicial tribunals are here divided, it will be perceived that those inferior courts presided over by judges who are educated lawyers are here arranged as a lower grade of superior courts. The object of this is to separate them more distinctly from the other inferior courts, eleven in number, which differ widely from each other in the nature and extent of their powers, and have in fact only one point of resemblance to each other and of distinction from the above named courts, — that they are not holden by judges who are educated lawyers.

The Exchequer Court has cognizance of suits arising from the accounts of those employed in that department, the chief of which presides. The Ecclesiastical and Military tribunals, composed of officers of those bodies, decide cases within their respective organizations. Tribunals of Commerce are held by deputies sent from the commercial districts, except only Valparaiso, who hear causes pertaining to commercial matters. The remaining tribunals are composed of the various grades of provincial officers, and relate to subjects connected with mining, public roads, theatres, the lesser crimes, some domestic matters and money claims. As to this last item, the powers of the several magistrates differ, and will be specified in connection with their other duties hereafter. The domes-

tic court is the only one in this enumeration whose title does not explain its object. It pertains rather to the social than the judicial system of the country; but being classed among the judicial tribunals, it illustrates perhaps better than any other the nice sense of justice and regard to private rights which prevail in Chile. It is summoned by the political chief of any province or department, and is composed of five fathers of families. Its principal object is to hear and decide upon the complaints of minors against their parents for refusing assent to their marriage. The decision is without appeal. That this court is of greater consequence in Chile, than might appear to us, is evident from the fact, that majority by the constitution is not reached till the age of twenty-five by single men, but is attainable through marriage at twenty-one. Hence it happens that not merely the question of betrothal is involved in the decisions of the tribunal, but also the gain or loss for a term of years of the privileges of citizenship.

The political divisions of Chile are even more detailed and minute than those of the United States. The whole country is divided into Provinces, and each of these into a number of departments, which are again subdivided into what are called sub-delegacions, and each of these into a number of small districts or inspectorships. Within these divisions, and embracing portions of all, but distinct in its functions from either, is still another class of authorities called municipalities. The Provinces, which may be said to resemble the States of our Republic as nearly as the grand divisions of a central government can approach to those of federal union, are eleven in number, each governed by an Intendente appointed by the President for three years, but eligible for repeated terms. He is the head of all the branches of provincial administration as the immediate agent of the President, and is the judge of the theatrical tribunal which decides in matters connected with public amusement. Each Province is divided into several departments, the number varying with its extent and population. These divisions nearly correspond with our congressional districts in one of their objects, but are likewise distinct jurisdictions, each having its own capital, and presided over by a Governor, whose term of office is three years. He is appointed by the President, from a list of three names

recommended by the Intendente, who can remove him for cause with consent of the President. His judicial power embraces the courts regulating the public roads and the mining interests. The Intendente of the Province is Governor of the department in whose capital he resides.

There are fifty-two departments in the Republic. They are divided into a considerable number of sub-delegacions, each presided over by a sub-delegate appointed by and subordinate to the Governor of the department. The term of office is two years, subject to removal by the Governor under sanction of the Intendente. They have legal jurisdiction in criminal cases of minor importance, and in civil suits involving sums between \$40 and \$150, and appellate powers from the decisions of the Inspector's Court in actions for over twelve dollars. Their powers and duties are somewhat similar to those of our sheriffs as the head of police, and the sub-delegation may be compared to the county division in the United States. There are about 370 of these divisions in Chile. Each of these is again subdivided into a number of small Inspectorships, the minuteness of which subdivision corresponds to that of townships in the northern United States. The Inspectors are appointed and removed by the sub-delegate, with the sanction of the Governor. They are the supervisors of the postal arrangements, and justices of the peace in their districts, and are subordinate in all respects to the sub-delegates, with whom they consult in doubtful cases. As magistrates, they decide finally all suits for less than twelve dollars, and, subject to appeal to the court above, those between this sum and forty dollars, at which point their powers cease. The number of Inspectorships in the country exceeds 1,600. Both of these lower provincial offices are compulsory, the fine for refusing to accept them being about equal to the sums limiting their respective legal jurisdictions.

The municipality is a local government, existing in every capital of department, and in any other populous district where it may be desirable. It is composed of a number of Alcaldes and Regidors proportioned to its population and extent, and corresponds to our city or town organizations. These magistrates are chosen by the people, and hold office for three years. Their duties are similar to those of our city and town governments. The governor is chief of all the

municipalities in his department, and the sub-delegate presides over that in his district. The minor offices in the municipality are compulsory. The Alcalde's court has criminal jurisdiction to the extent of conviction, but sentence must be passed by a learned judge; also, it tries civil suits of a greater amount than \$150.

The laws of Chile require ten years residence, preceded by a declaration of intention at the municipality, for an unmarried foreigner to attain the rights of a citizen; but six years suffice if the applicant has a family in the country, and three years if married to a native. A special act of Congress in his behalf may dispense with these requisitions. The primary conditions of suffrage are to have reached the age of majority, twenty-one or twenty-five years, depending upon being married or single, and to know how to read and write. The test of these acquirements is the being able to dictate certain prescribed statutes. The additional conditions are the possession of property of some sort, or a fixed trade or occupation yielding a specified income; and the name must be duly registered in the municipality where he resides at least three months previous to the election. This right may be lost by physical or moral incapacity to labor, by becoming a domestic servant, a debtor to the State, or a penal convict. Certain other contingencies involve the total loss of citizenship. To hold the superior offices of state an increased property qualification is requisite.

The bill of rights guaranties to all the inhabitants equality before the laws, security to property, and the freedom of the press; and these are practically maintained in that country more strictly than in any other Spanish American State. Justice may be tardy in Chile, for delay is a trait of the Spanish character; but it is also pretty certain in the end, which cannot be said of some of her more democratic sisters. Slavery and the slave trade are forbidden by the constitution. No *ex post facto* law can be passed. Personal freedom is secured by stringent regulations. In cases of arrest, the magistrate issuing the writ must place the party at the disposition of the competent tribunal within forty-eight hours, and no obstacle must prevent his visiting the prisoner within twenty-four hours. In criminal prosecutions, not only is the culprit relieved, as with us, from criminating himself, but this immunity



extends likewise to the members of his family, and even includes his relatives in the third degree by blood and the second by affinity. None of these can be made to testify against him. All Chilenos capable of bearing arms are enrolled in the militia. Any unauthorized assembly assuming to act in the name of the people is declared to be seditious. Any resolution forced from the President or from Congress by an armed band is *ipso facto* null. Entails are invalid.

These are some of the prominent constitutional provisions of Chile; and this would complete the detail of her complicated plan of government, were it not that education, religion, and, as we have seen in one instance, so in many others, domestic institutions, are too closely interwoven with state regulations to permit an altogether distinct consideration of her social and political systems.

In viewing the country in its social aspect, one of the most striking and important features which demand attention is the plan of general education. Public instruction is declared in the constitution to be a principal object of care with the government, and it is placed under the direction of a cabinet minister whose special business it is to superintend its interests.

The University of Chile is a metropolitan institution, having charge of the details of education throughout the Republic, not only controlling the national schools, but exercising supervision over all others, whether established by the local authorities or by private instructors. It has no students, but consists of a council of five faculties with appropriate officers. Philosophy and the Humanities, Physical and Exact Science, Medicine, Theology, Law and Politics, are the faculties, each of which embraces a number of professors learned in their respective branches. The senior of the first named faculty is director of the government primary schools. The National Library connected with the university contains about 20,000 volumes, and is open to the public. A museum and cabinet of natural history illustrate every branch of physical science connected with that faculty. The Academy of Laws and Practice is under the direction of its appropriate faculty. It comprises three grades of members, admitted advocates who perform no duties, but have a vote in all deliberations, bachelors of laws who are examined for membership and form the working body, and law students. It meets twice a week for forensic

debate and legal dissertation. Any person may consult the academy upon any unadjudicated point of law; and in such cases, the presiding officer appoints three members, who must separately deliver a written opinion to the consulting party at the end of fifteen days. No bachelor of laws can be admitted to practise as an advocate in the courts without having attended, for two consecutive years, the sessions of the academy. The Theological faculty, also, have charge of an academy. The University confer degrees on the pupils of the superior seminaries who may be entitled to that honor.

The National Institute corresponds to our higher Universities, giving instruction in every branch of knowledge. It has twenty-seven professors, and from 800 to 1,000 students. The course is four years, and the price of tuition is \$100 a year. The government support thirty scholarships and thirty half scholarships, for the education of indigent students whose fathers have been in public service. This institution does honor to the enlightened policy which sustains it; and it is but the head of a system which pervades every part of the republic, embracing six large lyceums, besides a nautical school, a military academy, a normal agricultural school, and 130 primary schools, in some of which the higher elementary branches are taught. The number of these is rapidly increasing, by large annual appropriations for the purpose. All these institutions are under the special supervision of the University, and are nearly all supported by the general government. Besides these, there are a still larger number of schools maintained in the municipalities from the local treasuries. The girls' schools are in all cases distinct from the boys'. There are also numerous private seminaries, and colleges endowed by religious and other societies, some of which contain a full corps of professors for all the branches taught in the National Institute, and educate a large number of pupils. In Santiago alone, there are sixteen of these, five of which are for girls; and in Valparaiso, twelve, one half for girls. No country in the world possesses a more complete and extensive system of general education than Chile. It is fully equal to the celebrated Prussian plan, or the yet more thorough scheme pursued in the southern New England States. Inducements of every sort, public offices, and premiums for excellence, are held out by the government to

promote a spirit of emulation and the consequent spread of education; and even the right of suffrage is contingent upon the acquisition of the first rudiments. The gratuitous education of the poorer classes is amply secured by government, and females are admitted to equal advantages with males. The annual revenue of the State amounts to about three millions of dollars, out of which the appropriation for education does not vary much from \$150,000. This is exclusive of large sums yearly contributed by the provincial treasuries, in support of their local schools. Charitable establishments formed under the direction of government, and in most cases supported by it, are sufficiently numerous. Hospitals, orphan asylums, and poor-houses are regularly organized and liberally maintained.

The ecclesiastical institutions of a country exert an important influence upon the details of its social system. Those of Chile are numerous. The republic is divided into four dioceses, consisting of the archbishopric of Santiago and three suffragan bishoprics, and embraces 153 parishes, with about fifty convents and monasteries, besides a college of the propaganda, with fourteen missionaries. The tithe system prevails, furnishing ample means for their support.

The constitution declares, that "the religion of Chile is the Catholic Apostolic Roman faith; *with prohibition of the public exercise of any other whatever.*" We do not propose to consider the theological assumptions of a Church whose stability has always been in an inverse ratio with the progress of freedom and education, nor to discuss the policy of a religious establishment of any kind in connection with the State. The dogma of papal supremacy, and the doctrine of union in Church and State, are points which few native-born Americans do not clearly understand and sternly reject. But it is with special reference to the latter clause of this constitutional article that we cannot forbear to express mortification and surprise, that such a condensation of bigotry was ever suffered to form a chapter in the organic law of Chile. A country in all respects so vigorous, and rapidly advancing to a position which the sister republics will scarcely attain in the long lapse of years, should never have admitted so illiberal a provision in its fundamental code. No one could expect that the Romish religion would not there be the predominant one,

for it is the hereditary faith of Spaniards ; and that being the case, we could scarcely hope, even with all the education and refinement of the Chilenos, that the Church would not be connected with the government, for the Papacy has ever sought alliance with the State ; and even Protestant Europe has pursued the same mistaken policy. But we might expect that, while the larger portion of the population preserved their ancient form of religion, and the government sustained it as an integral part of the body politic, freedom of conscience in some respects, and liberty of thought and action in spiritual things, might be accorded to those whose convictions, whether from reason or education, led them to dissent from the popular religious sentiment. The compulsory process now sought to be exercised must produce the effect of driving men to ultraism, and according as its influence is felt by the ignorant and the mean-spirited on the one hand, or by the educated and the high-souled on the other, will result bigotry which shows itself in persecution, or indirect, if not avowed, infidelity. That the public exercise of no other than the Papal form of worship is allowed by law in Chile, is a stain upon the character of the finest nation in South America. It places them, as respects one of the most important indications of a high civilization, in a position inferior to that which is occupied by Uruguay or La Plata, States immeasurably inferior to them in most other points. In every matter but that of toleration, Chile has already left the mother country in the rear ; but in matters of religion, she maintains the same narrow policy that has inflicted so much injury upon Spain. It may be that the old monarchy will yet teach the young republic a lesson in liberty. The expediency of religious toleration is now strenuously urged in Madrid, with all the arguments which enlightened reason and commercial interest can bring to the cause of truth. This is a new ray of light dawning on the dark land of the Inquisition. *El Clamor Publico*, the *progresista* journal, is the organ of this movement, which, sooner or later, is destined to prevail even in the capital of her most Catholic Majesty. If Chile expects that her resources are to be developed and her high destiny attained without the bloody medium of revolution, she must remove all restrictions from the soul as well as from the body of her people. Emigration is desired and encouraged by that government, and recently

large grants of land in the fertile provinces of the south have been made with this object in view. A considerable German population will soon be gathered there, whose quiet perseverance and sterling worth will have ere long a weighty influence on the political as well as the material prosperity of the country ; and the German Protestants will insist upon religious freedom, or seek elsewhere a more congenial home. It is no valid plea in mitigation of this intolerant proscription, that it is not actively enforced in the case of opulent foreign residents from Protestant countries. The commercial welfare of the Pacific States generally would be too seriously impaired by their withdrawal, not to induce these governments tacitly to acquiesce in the secret exercise of this God-given right, which, if openly maintained, would be in direct violation of this stringent provision in their several constitutions. The result has been, in several instances, that these governments have shown a disposition to wink at such violations on the part of resident foreigners ; but the direct sanction of the authorities has been withheld upon application for leave to erect Protestant churches. Thus it happens, that property invested in this way would be without the pale of the law, and could not be protected by the authorities from popular outrage, except by a violation on their part of the constitution. Hence, the Pacific coast has thus far been to the Protestant only as missionary ground, where, here and there, at some great seaport, he may find a Bethel flag, but no permanent and regularly attended church. It seems to us that this is a proper matter for diplomatic arrangement. In this free and Protestant land, the South American citizen finds Roman Catholic churches in almost every city, where he may worship as securely, under the protection of the law, as in his own country. International courtesy as well as natural right demands that the same privilege be accorded to our citizens abroad, and if bigotry refuse it diplomacy should enforce it. We cannot think that this one black spot in the bright picture which Chile otherwise presents can very long withstand the influence which education and commercial intercourse must naturally exert upon a prosperous and ambitious people. Chile has led in the path which the sister republics must follow to attain stability in government and refinement in society. We believe she will also lead the way, and that ere long, in the recognition of religious freedom.

The military establishment is small, there being very little occasion for its use ; but the resources for its increase to a powerful force in case of emergency are ample. The regular army consists of less than 3000 troops, who garrison the different forts, and are distributed in the towns as auxiliary police. The organized militia number about 64,000 men, the larger portion of whom are cavalry. The naval force in commission consists of only three vessels and little more than fifty guns, but with sufficient materials in reserve to equip a formidable squadron in the event of war. The postal arrangements are well regulated. Daily mails connect the more populous districts, and every ten days there is a mail from the central to the extreme provinces of the Republic. The rates of postage nearly correspond to those of the United States under the old system. The administration of roads and bridges is in charge of a corps of civil engineers appointed by the general government, and is also supervised by provincial juntas, who appoint their local engineers. A liberal appropriation is made for these objects.

The minute political subdivisions already detailed impart to the government, especially in the rural districts, almost a patriarchal character. They introduce a sort of parental, or at least a pastoral system, eminently adapted for a country of large landed proprietors. The tenantry are held in a very simple and easy manner. They present themselves to the farmer, and propose to work for him. If he accepts their services, he allots to them a tract of land to cultivate for themselves, and assigns to them a rancho, if there is one vacant, or if not, they soon erect one. Thus they live almost gratuitously, as the only free labor required of them, as rent for their house and land, is four or five days' work in the year, when the cattle are to be driven up, or removed from one part of the estate to another, which requires the assistance of one or two hundred men. At all other times, they are hired, when wanted, at nineteen or twenty-five cents a day, which is good wages in a country where the means of living are so cheap and cereal vegetation spontaneous. If the tenants refuse to be hired, the only remedy of the landlord is to turn them off, when they readily obtain a rancho on some neighboring farm. There is a scarcity of laborers, large numbers of whom are required on the great estates, for some of the larger

ones employ over a hundred men even at the least busy season.

The society of Chile is more staid and substantial, as the character of its people is more sedate and earnest, than that of any other Spanish republic. In this respect, they resemble ourselves, and have been called the English of South America. They are courteous and hospitable, but more reserved than their neighbors, and more cautious to whom they extend the civilities of social intercourse. One must go well recommended by something more than a large letter of credit, if he would see the interior of Chileno life. Like their North American prototypes, although with a different faith, they are a sober and religious people; and during the high festivals of the Roman Church, they appear, in externals at least, more pious than the Pope. In fact, Passion week presents the quintessence of religious fervor in Santiago beyond any city on earth. Rome itself is not so intensely agonized on that occasion as are the prostrate populace of the Chile capital. At noon of Holy Thursday, a discharge of cannon is succeeded by a deathlike silence, and the instant disappearance of all cattle and horses from the streets, as if the whole brute creation had been utterly cut off by the portentous battery. For forty-six hours, pedestrianism is the order of the day and night, and crowds of both sexes throng the streets and frequent the churches, all the while praying audibly as they proceed, with the energy of Bedlam and the confusion of Babel. On Good Friday night, a torchlight procession of several thousand people parades the city, bearing, among other devices, the cock that crowed when Peter denied his Lord, and said, by those who assume to know, to bear a remarkable resemblance to its prototype. While this spectacle is in progress, every one must continue bareheaded. It should, however, be mentioned that this blending of blasphemy and farce is discountenanced by many of the better class of the inhabitants, and is likely soon to be discontinued. At ten, A. M., of Saturday, another cannon peal revives the suspended animation of the stalled cavalry of the capital, the streets resume their wonted appearance, and at the same moment, effigies of Judas Iscariot are seen hanging in penal degradation from the trees and sign-posts of the city; but this latter absurdity is likewise becoming less common.

Lent is a dull season for the stranger in Santiago ; towards the close, no visits are made, and unless one has access to its domestic circles, he will find himself an intruder among anchorites, or like the traveller at Mar-Saba, a solitary sinner amid a wilderness of saints. But should his relations be more intimate than those of mere courtesy, he will have no cause for loneliness even at this period of religious seclusion ; for in the family circle he will always meet with a cordial welcome, and in the retirement of a Chileno home will experience the kindness of an amiable and warm-hearted people.

It is a matter of regret that, even in this country, the New England of the south, the customs and the philosophy of France have obtained a foothold. In the other States, this tendency is more apparent and less remarkable than in Chile. But even here, where so many of the more sterling and conservative influences predominate, it is sufficiently obvious. In social life, it is developed in the phases of fashion. Paris and the "*afrancescados*" of Madrid have interdicted the mantilla, and the neophytes of Santiago submit to the decree. Even the music, that touchstone of the character and nationality of a people, has experienced a revolution from the same imperious mandate. The young ladies practise the piano forte and ignore the guitar ; their mothers alone retain a respect for the discarded instrument. The songs of Beranger have supplanted the songs of the Cid ; and the waltz and the polka have proscribed the bolero. The lively and the stately *paseos* of Spain have alike vanished before the voluptuous dances of France. The peasantry alone remain true to their ancient associations. In the hamlets, one may still hear the nightly guitar, and join in the honest, light-hearted fandango. But the cities will soon present little to remind one of Spain, save in the noble bearing and majestic language of their inhabitants. If something new is required which must come from abroad, whether it be a fire-engine or a furnace, it is ordered from France, although the fire department of Paris is the worst in the world, and North America or England could supply either much better.

In politics, this influence is of more dangerous tendency. There are prominent men in that country, as there are demagogues in all free lands, who seem determined, at whatever



cost to the peace and prosperity of the State, to seize the reins of power. For the want of distinct party issues, such as exist in this country, these men are driven to adopt and circulate the political coinage of foreign nations, and have selected for the bases of their operations the wildest and most feculent theories of the French Jacobins. Within a recent period, Santiago and some of the adjacent districts have been infested with revolutionary clubs, whose declared purpose was to overturn the existing government, and, by reënacting on American soil the scenes of the Reign of Terror, to crush forever the conservative party,—the party which organized the country in 1830, framed the constitution in 1833, and whose principles are order and tranquillity, security to life and property, with as much individual freedom as may be compatible with these,—the party to which Chile owes all that she is, and upon which depends much of her future greatness. An open demonstration at length gave the government opportunity to crush the revolt; and the occurrence, although mortifying to the friends of that country, has in its result shown the supremacy of law, the stability of government, and the impotence of the socialist leaders. A presidential election is now pending in Chile, whose importance will bring every element of order and of ruin into the highest activity. If the country is to be Frenchified in its politics, like some of its neighbors, the change will soon take place; but if the elements of order prove too strong for the efforts of socialism at the coming crisis, Chile bids fair for a protracted period of internal prosperity and a substantial fabric of external influence.

The spirit of enterprise, which forms so prominent a trait of Chileno character, and distinguishes that people above any of their neighbors, has given them corresponding superiority in all the elements of greatness. The envy of their prosperity and the jealousy of their power, awakened in the minds of the other South American States, have caused the Chilenos to be regarded by them very much as England is regarded by all the continental nations of Europe. They are disliked and decried by those who cannot emulate their success.

The restless energy and ambition of the Norman Saxon race, which on the eastern continent have secured India to the British crown, and on the western have annexed the choicest

provinces of Mexico to the United States, are matched by corresponding traits in the Chileno character. The great desert of Atacama on the north and the stupendous barrier of the Andes on the west, are the most reliable safeguards of the adjacent States against the increasing power of Chile. These national obstacles to extended operations by land, together with the advantage of a very extended seaboard, have led the Chilenos to turn their attention to building up a naval marine, which shall be commensurate with their spreading commerce and increasing resources. Their navy is destined to occupy a conspicuous place in the future history of South America. If "ambition is the last infirmity of noble minds" in individuals, it is not the less so in powerful and prosperous States; and already it has displayed itself in Chile, as we have had occasion to intimate. We do not like the doctrine, but yet it seems to be one inseparably connected thus far with the destinies of mankind, that superior attainment in the arts of civilization should be propagated by the sword.

We have thus presented a somewhat detailed and critical view of the physical and moral features of a country which nature has endowed with her choicest gifts, and whose people seem able and determined to avail themselves to the utmost of their advantages.

If some portions of this article are too prolix for the general reader, who may not feel interested in the minutiae of all the branches of which it treats, we can only say that a less analytical discussion would fail to present even a skeleton of many of the complicated departments in the internal organization of Chile. Our object has been to give, in as concise a form as practicable, an idea of the many peculiarities of its government, and of the prominent points of its history and present condition. We believe that no work upon this subject exists in the English language, and not even an ordinary book of travels in Chile has been published for many years, certainly not since the existing constitution, totally remoulding the institutions of the country, went into operation. The absence of such sources of information upon topics in which many readers are interested we have here endeavored in some small measure to supply.

In conclusion, we will say that Chile seems destined, at no distant day, to become "the model republic" of the south,

and to exert the influence of arts, if not of arms, over the whole southern continent. She will be the first to follow in our steps, for the character of her people, more closely than that of any other of the Spanish races, resembles our own. Her geographical position is the most commanding one south of the equator, and, united with her energy and enterprise, will give her the control of that portion of the Pacific. It becomes "The great Republic of the North" to cultivate the most intimate relations with this, her most promising, disciple. The friendship will be a mutual good, and a blessing to those vast regions which lie between them, whose destinies must be moulded in a greater or less degree by those of Chile and the United States.

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ART. II. — *English Grammar: The English Language in its Elements and Forms, with a History of its Origin and Development*. Designed for Use in Colleges and Schools. By WILLIAM C. FOWLER, late Professor of Rhetoric in Amherst College. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1850. 8vo. pp. 675.

ENGLISH GRAMMARS succeed each other like almanacs, equally abundant, and almost as ephemeral. Every publisher must have his own; and, year after year, this is replaced by another, which professes to have made sundry unheard of discoveries in the mode of teaching the vernacular; to have invented some novel and ingenious contrivances and simplifications in arranging or illustrating the technicalities of the parts of speech; in short, to have smoothed down ancient roughnesses, sweetened the bitter roots of learning, and made grammar attractive and easy to beginners. Of course, the last is always perfect, or as nearly so as human infirmity can achieve; while all its predecessors are incontrovertible trash. But just as we are beginning to congratulate ourselves that at length something has been accomplished, — lo! the last that was is the last no longer; a later still appears, and its immediate predecessor is forthwith consigned to the ever-growing heap of antiquated rubbish.

Perhaps the peculiar simplicity of the English language,

**ERRATA.**

Page 286, line 17, for "cloudlike," *read* Claudelike.

" " " 18, for "more Italian," *read* more than Italian.